

Title

Arabidopsis Root-Type Ferredoxin:NADP(H) Oxidoreductase Is Involved in
Detoxification of Nitrite in Roots

Running head

Detoxification of nitrite by root FNR2

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Title

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Detoxification of nitrite by root FNR2

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Abbreviations

FNR, ferredoxin:NADP(H) oxidoreductase; Fd, ferredoxin; G6PD, glucose-6-phosphate
dehydrogenase; GOGAT, glutamine-oxoglutarate aminotransferase; GS, glutamine
synthetase; GUS, β -glucuronidase; N, nitrogen; NiR, nitrite reductase; NO, nitric oxide;

NR, nitrate reductase; NRT, nitrate transporter; oxPPP, oxidative pentose phosphate pathway; Q-PCR, quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction

Footnotes

The nucleotide sequence reported in this paper has been submitted to The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR) under accession numbers

Abstract

Ferredoxin : NADP(H) oxidoreductase (FNR) plays a key role in redox metabolism in plastids. Whereas leaf FNR (LFNR) is required for photosynthesis, root FNR (RFNR) is believed to provide electrons to ferredoxin (Fd)-dependent enzymes, including nitrite reductase (NiR) and Fd-glutamine-oxoglutarate aminotransferase (Fd-GOGAT) in non-photosynthetic conditions. In some herbal species, however, most nitrate reductase activity is located in photosynthetic organs, and ammonium in roots is assimilated mainly by Fd-independent NADH-GOGAT. Therefore, RFNR might have a limited impact on N assimilation in roots grown with nitrate or ammonium nitrogen sources. *AtRFNRs* are rapidly induced by application of toxic nitrite. Thus, we tested the hypothesis that RFNR could contribute to nitrite reduction in roots by comparing *A. thaliana* seedlings of wild type with loss-of-function mutants of *RFNR2*. When these seedlings were grown under nitrate, nitrite or ammonium, only nitrite nutrition caused impaired growth and nitrite accumulation in roots of *rfnr2*. Supplementation of nitrite with nitrate or ammonium as N sources did not restore the root growth in *rfnr2*. Also, a scavenger for nitric oxide (NO) could not effectively rescue the growth impairment. Thus, nitrite toxicity, rather than N depletion or nitrite-dependent NO production, probably causes the *rfnr2* root growth defect. Our results strongly suggest that RFNR2 has a major role in reduction of toxic nitrite in roots. A specific set of genes related to nitrite reduction and the supply of reducing power responded to nitrite concomitantly, suggesting that the products of these genes act cooperatively with RFNR2 to reduce nitrite in roots. (249 words)

Keywords: ferredoxin:NADP(H) oxidoreductase, ferredoxin, nitrite reduction, root-type

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110	Introduction

Ferredoxin : NADP(H) oxidoreductase (FNR) plays a key role in redox metabolism in plastids (Hanke and Mulo 2013). In chloroplasts, FNR oxidizes the reduced form of ferredoxin (Fd) to reduce NADP^+ , which in turn, supplies the Calvin cycle with NADPH. In non-photosynthetic plastids, FNR reduces Fd using NADPH derived from the oxidative pentose phosphate pathway (oxPPP), providing reducing power for various biosynthetic processes such as assimilatory pathways of nitrogen (N), sulfur and fatty acids. These opposing reactions are believed to be catalyzed by specific FNR isoproteins, i.e. leaf FNR (LFNR) and root FNR (RFNR), respectively (Hanke et al. 2004, Hanke et al. 2005). In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, loss-of-function of *AtLFNRs* impaired autotrophic growth and photosynthetic capacity, demonstrating their essential roles in operating the electron flow *in vivo* (Lintala et al. 2009, Lintala et al. 2012). By contrast, the physiological importance of RFNR remains to be investigated using knock-out mutants.

N assimilation requires a large amount of reducing power. The Fd-dependent enzymes in this pathway include nitrite reductase (NiR) and Fd-glutamine-oxoglutarate aminotransferase (Fd-GOGAT). Given that expression of *AtRFNRs* (*RFNR1*; At4g05390, *RFNR2*; At1g30510, see Hanke et al. 2005) are induced by application of either nitrate or ammonium (Wang et al. 2000, 2003, Patterson et al. 2010), *AtRFNRs* could provide reducing equivalents to N assimilation in roots. In some herbal species, however, nitrate is reduced predominantly in shoots using the reducing equivalents derived from photosynthesis (Scheurwater et al. 2002, Bloom et al. 2010). Nitrate reductase (NR) activities of hydroponically grown *A. thaliana* were much higher in shoots than roots

(Rachmilevitch et al. 2004, Krapp et al. 2011). Thus, RFNR may play a minor role in N reduction in roots grown with nitrate. Ammonium addition to *Arabidopsis* roots induced *NADH-GOGAT* rather than *Fd-GOGAT* expression in a concentration-dependent manner (Konishi et al. 2014). Moreover, analyses with loss-of-function mutants have suggested that *NADH-GOGAT* is the major enzyme converting ammonium-derived glutamine to glutamate in roots (Lancien et al. 2002, Konishi et al. 2014). It is therefore doubtful that RFNR supports nitrogen assimilation by furnishing *Fd-GOGAT* with reduced *Fd* in roots grown with ammonium.

Recently, nitrite has been attracting attention as the third inorganic N source (Kotur et al. 2013). Nitrite availability varies in the soil worldwide depending on the balance between nitrification and denitrification (Samater et al. 1998, Riley et al. 2001, Shen et al. 2003). Although nitrite concentrations in the soil are generally low compared with nitrate and ammonium, a few hundred μM of nitrite have been detected in some soils (Jones and Schwab 1993, López Pasquali et al. 2007). Nitrite can be taken up via different pathways in *A. thaliana* (Kotur et al. 2013). One is mediated via active transporters including high-affinity nitrate transporter 2 (NRT2), and another is simple diffusion of nitrous acid under low pH. It is noteworthy that micromolar concentrations of nitrite act as a signal to rapidly alter a genome-wide expression of numerous transcripts in *A. thaliana* (Wang et al. 2007). The existence of functional machineries for nitrite uptake and signaling suggests that nitrite could be an important N source for plants in the field. Nitrite must be reduced immediately after its uptake, because of its high toxicity to plants. In fact, *AtRFNRs* and *NIR* can be induced by application of only 5 μM nitrite within 20

minutes (Wang et al. 2007). Therefore, we verified the hypothesis that RFNR could have a major role in reducing environmental nitrite as N source using *A. thaliana* seedlings of wild type (Col) and loss-of-function mutants of *RFNR*. Our results strongly suggest that AtRFNR2 is essential for reduction and detoxification of nitrite absorbed by roots to avoid accumulation of nitrite and the resultant defects in plant growth.

Results

Identification of T-DNA insertion mutants of *RFNR1* and *RFNR2*

One T-DNA insertion allele for *RFNR1* (SALK_085009; *rfnr1*) and two independent alleles for *RFNR2* (SAIL_527_G10.V1; *rfnr2-1*, SALK_133654; *rfnr2-2*) were obtained from the European Arabidopsis Stock Centre (Fig. 1A). *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-1* have T-DNA insertions in the second exon and in the first intron, respectively. An insertion of T-DNA in *rfnr2-2* extends from the fourth exon to the fourth intron. We checked mRNA levels of full-length *RFNRs* in roots of these lines with reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR) (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Fig. S1A). In *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2*, there was no transcript signal from the corresponding *RFNR* genes (Fig. 1B). On the other hand, lower amounts of signals were detected in *rfnr2-1* than Col (Supplementary Fig. S1A). A quantitative reverse transcription PCR (Q-PCR) analysis also revealed that transcript levels of *RFNR2* in *rfnr2-1* accounted for about 18-25% of the transcript amount in Col roots (Supplementary Fig. S1B). To determine protein content of *RFNRs*, we conducted western analysis with the polyclonal antibody raised against a recombinant maize *RFNR* (Onda et al. 2000). Two independent signals were observed in Col, where the upper and lower bands correspond to *RFNR1* and *RFNR2*, respectively (Hanke et al. 2005). In *rfnr1*, no upper signal was detected, whereas, in *rfnr2-1* and *rfnr2-2*, the lower signal was absent (Fig. 1C, Supplementary S1C). We concluded that *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2* are knockout mutants and that *rfnr2-1* is a knockdown mutant.

Expression of *RFNR1* and *RFNR2* under different N growth conditions

To determine steady-state transcript levels of *RFNR1* and *RFNR2* under

different N sources, we conducted Q-PCR analysis using Col grown with 0.2 mM of nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A) as the sole N source for seven days (Fig. 2A). This N concentration is within the conceivable range in the field (Miller et al. 2007, Kotur et al. 2013), and was sufficient to grow plants without causing N depletion (see protein contents in plants in Fig. 4E). Irrespective of N source, both *RFNRs* were expressed predominantly in roots (Fig. 2A), where the copy numbers of *RFNR2* mRNA were more than ten times those of *RFNR1*. In the roots of Col grown with nitrite, a western analysis also showed that *RFNR2* had stronger signals than *RFNR1* (Fig. 1C). The transcript levels of *RFNR1* were similar among N conditions both in shoots and roots, whereas those of *RFNR2* attained the maximum level in the roots grown with nitrite.

Nitrate and nitrite application can induce expression of a large number of genes in tens of minutes (Wang et al. 2003, Wang et al. 2007, Patterson et al. 2010). To analyze the short-term N responses, we grew seedlings for seven days under ammonium conditions and transferred them into fresh media containing nitrate, nitrite or ammonium as the sole N source. *RFNR2* expression levels in roots were compared before and after a 30 minute incubation with each N source (Fig. 2B). *RFNR2* was significantly induced by nitrite addition, but not by nitrate or ammonium. In the present study, we focused on *RFNR2* as the major isoform responding to nitrite-supplied conditions.

To monitor a tissue-specific pattern of transcriptional activity for *RFNR2*, we generated transgenic plants with β -glucuronidase (GUS) fused to the region between – 879 and +24 bp from the first ATG codon of *RFNR2* (For details, see Materials and methods). The T₃ homozygous transgenic plants were grown for five days under nitrate

or nitrite, and blue GUS signals were observed with a stereoscopic microscope (Fig. 2C) and an optical microscope (Fig. 2D, E). Under both N sources, the signals were localized predominantly in roots, consistent with the Q-PCR observations (Fig. 2A, C). Basal regions of primary roots had stronger signals than root tips (Fig. 2C). In the middle region of the primary root, vascular bundles were remarkably stained, although the outer layer of cells also showed weaker GUS signals (Fig. 2D). Strong signals were also observed in the columella cells of root tips (Fig. 2E). Overall, the signal intensities of GUS were higher under nitrite than nitrate (Fig. 2C-E), which also corresponded to the tendency observed with Q-PCR (Fig. 2A, B). Both transcript levels of authentic *RFNR2* and heterologous *GUS* driven by the *RFNR2* promoter were higher in 5-day-old roots under nitrite (Fig. 2F), suggesting that the nitrite induction of *RFNR2* is under transcriptional control.

Root growth of rfnr2 mutants on different N sources

Next, we compared root growth between Col and *rfnr2* mutants to elucidate whether *RFNR2* could contribute to nitrite reduction (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S1D-F). In Col, the length of primary roots was slightly, but significantly, longer under nitrate growth conditions than with nitrite or ammonium (Fig. 3A, B, Supplementary Fig. S1D, E). Primary root growth of *rfnr2-2* decreased relative to Col under nitrite growth conditions, whereas, under nitrate or ammonium condition, no significant difference was observed. Also, in *rfnr2-1*, primary root length was shorter under nitrite, but not under nitrate. The length of lateral roots was also longest in Col supplied with nitrate, followed

in order by nitrite and ammonium (Fig. 3A, C, Supplementary Fig. S1D, F). Relative to Col, *rfnr2-2* showed remarkably stunted growth of lateral roots under nitrite growth conditions, although the mutant also had a slight decrease in lateral root length under nitrate conditions (Fig. 3C). In *rfnr2-1*, however, no significant decrease in lateral root length was observed (Supplementary Fig. S1F).

We then investigated root growth in the knockout mutant, *rfnr2-2*, in detail. To determine the effective concentration of nitrite that results in primary root defects in *rfnr2-2*, we analyzed the concentration-dependence of primary root elongation on nitrate or nitrite at 0, 0.04, 0.2 and 1 mM (Fig. 3D). Little difference in primary root length was observed between Col and *rfnr2-2* under nitrate growth conditions at any concentration. By contrast, nitrite caused primary root elongation defects in *rfnr2-2* plants at 0.04, 0.2 and 1 mM. The extent of this defect in root growth increased with the nitrite concentration. It should be noted that primary root lengths in *rfnr2-2* were shorter under nitrite than under no N condition, suggesting that the stunted root phenotype is primarily due to a detrimental effect of nitrite on root growth, rather than an inability to assimilate N in the roots.

A time-course analysis revealed that, on nitrite supply, daily primary root elongation in *rfnr2-2* was severely suppressed at early stages of development (4-6 d), and that the suppression tended to be mitigated at later stages (7-9 d) (Fig. 3E).

To validate whether the root growth defects of *rfnr2-2* plants grown on nitrite persist, we transferred 4-day-old seedlings grown on either nitrate or nitrite to fresh medium containing different N sources. The seedlings were grown for three further days,

and their primary root elongation during the period after transfer was determined (Fig. 3F). Irrespective of the N source before the transfer, the *rfnr2-2* transferred to nitrite condition showed stunted primary root growth. On the other hand, the transfer from nitrite to nitrate conditions restored the rate of primary root elongation. These data suggest that the defective phenotype of the mutant is reversible.

Exploring the causes of root growth defects in rfnr2

If RFNR2 contributes to nitrite reduction in roots, its deficiency should cause nitrite accumulation therein. To confirm this, we measured nitrite concentrations in roots of 7-day-old plants grown under nitrate or nitrite (Fig. 4A). Under nitrite conditions, more than 100 nmol g fresh weight⁻¹ of nitrite was determined in *rfnr2-2* roots, whereas nitrite was not significantly detected in Col roots. Nitrite also accumulated in the roots of *rfnr2-1*, although the extent was less than in *rfnr2-2* (Supplementary Fig. S1G). In roots of plants grown with nitrate, no significant amount of nitrite was detected in either Col or *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 4A), indicating that any contribution of RFNR2 to N assimilation in Arabidopsis is redundant. Excess accumulation of nitrite is frequently accompanied by nitric oxide (NO) biosynthesis via a side reaction catalyzed by nitrate reductase (NR) (Rockel et al. 2002, Wang et al. 2007), which may inhibit primary root growth (Fernández-Marcos et al. 2012). Thus, we checked whether a NO scavenger could restore primary root growth in *rfnr2-2* roots grown with nitrite (Fig. 4B). However, application of 200 µM of carboxy-PTIO did not affect the phenotype in *rfnr2-2*. Likewise, the transcript level of an NO-inducible marker gene, *AOX1a* (Huang et al. 2002), was

unaffected by *RFNR2* deficiency (Fig. 4C). Furthermore, we could not detect NR activity in nitrite-grown Col roots, whilst, in the shoots, $8.27 \pm 1.53 \text{ nmol g FW}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ of NR activity was measured (Fig. 4D). Taken together, the data contradict any contribution of NO to root growth defects in the *RFNR2* mutants.

Severe N depletion decreases primary root growth in *A. thaliana* (Araya et al. 2014), providing another possible explanation for the *rfnr2* phenotype: *RFNR2* deficiency may deplete total N assimilation when nitrite is supplied as the sole N source. We therefore measured protein amounts in 7-day-old seedlings of Col and *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 4E), but could not observe any significant decrease in protein content of *rfnr2-2* seedlings, indicating that NiR activity in the leaves, supported by photosynthesis, is sufficient for N assimilation. Moreover, additional application of 0.2 mM nitrate or 0.2 mM ammonium to 0.2 mM nitrite (i.e. 0.4 mM N included in the media) did not restore the wild type root phenotype in *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 4F, G). In addition, as demonstrated in Fig.3D, primary root lengths in *rfnr2-2* were even shorter with nitrite than under no N growth conditions. These observations suggest that toxicity of nitrite *per se* could suppress root growth in *rfnr2-2*, and that the impairment of root growth is not due to N deprivation.

Identification of genes acting with RFNR2 in nitrite detoxification

To provide reducing power for efficient nitrite reduction in roots, NIR, RFNR, Fd and oxPPP would have to respond to nitrite concomitantly (see Introduction). To identify a set of additional, specifically relevant genes, we surveyed genes co-expressed with *RFNR2* using the ATTED II program (Obayashi et al. 2014). Supplementary Table

S1 shows a list of genes within the ranking's top ten. This includes one *NIR* (*NIR*; At2g15620), one root type *FD* (*FD3*; At2g27510) and one *FNR* (*RFNR1*; At4g05390). In the oxPPP, two *GLUCOSE-6-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASEs* (*G6PD2*; At5g13110, *G6PD3*; At1g24280), two putative *6-PHOSPHOGLUCONATE DEHYDROGENASEs* (At1g64190, At5g41670) and one *TRANSALDOLASE* (*TRA2*; At5g13420) were identified. We analyzed whether *NIR*, *FD3*, *RFNR1*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190* and *At5g41670* could respond to different N sources in the same way as *RFNR2* (Fig. 5A, B). Under steady-state growth conditions, all these genes were expressed predominantly in roots, and their expression levels attained the maximum in roots grown with nitrite (Fig. 5A). On the other hand, expression of the reference gene *At4g34270* (Hong et al. 2010) was not significantly different between N sources in shoots or roots (Fig. 5A). Short-term analysis also revealed that induction of the above genes was consistently strongest following nitrite application, whereas expression of *At4g34270* was not significantly changed (Fig. 5B). This expression response pattern is similar to that of *RFNR2* (Fig. 2A, B), suggesting that the products of these genes act cooperatively with *RFNR2* to form an electron supply system for nitrite reduction in roots. If this hypothesis is correct, nitrite induced expression of these genes would be enhanced in the *RFNR2* mutants as compensation. As expected, the steady-state transcript levels were higher in *rfnr2-2* roots under nitrite growth conditions (Fig. 5C), while *At4g34270* expression was affected little by *RFNR2* deficiency. A similar tendency was found in *rfnr2-1*, although the extent of compensation was less than in *rfnr2-2* (Supplementary Fig. S1H).

Verifying the role of *RFNR2* with nitrate or ammonium as N sources

We found little difference in root growth between Col and *RFNR2* mutants under nitrate or ammonium growth conditions (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S1D, E). This means that *RFNR2* may only play a minor role in N assimilation from these N sources, as mentioned in the Introduction. In short, we assume that in *A. thaliana*, nitrate reduction and the subsequent Fd-dependent steps occur mainly in shoots, and that ammonium absorbed by the roots is assimilated into glutamine by GS in the roots, followed by its conversion to glutamate mainly by NADH-GOGAT.

If nitrate was reduced predominantly in shoots, NR activity would be higher in shoots than roots. Indeed, in seedlings grown with nitrate, an abundant activity of NR was detected in shoots, but no significant activity was detected in roots (Fig. 6A, for comparison, see Yu et al. 1998, Konishi and Yanagisawa 2011). In a NR double mutant (*nr*) grown in the presence of nitrate, more nitrate was accumulated in shoots relative to Col, but not in roots (Fig. 6B), confirming that nitrate reduction occurs mainly in shoots *in vivo*. Furthermore, in Figure 4A, *RFNR2* deficiency did not affect nitrite concentrations in roots under nitrate growth conditions, suggesting that nitrite was scarcely produced in the roots grown with nitrate.

GLN1;2 is an ammonium-inducible isoform of GS expressed in the root vasculature (Ishiyama et al. 2004, Konishi et al. 2014, Guan et al. 2015). Our Q-PCR analysis revealed that *GLN1;2* was expressed predominantly in roots, and attained maximum expression levels under ammonium growth conditions (Supplementary Fig. S2A). On the other hand, transcripts of *GLN2*, the plastidic isoform of GS, were much

higher in shoots than roots. Total GS activities are almost comparable between shoots and roots (Supplementary Fig. S2B). In roots, the highest activity was observed under ammonium growth conditions, followed by nitrite and then nitrate conditions, corresponding to the expression pattern of *GLN1;2* (Supplementary Fig. S2A, B). A knockout of *GLN1;2* (*gln1;2*, Lothier et al. 2011) decreased root GS activity by ca. 35% of Col (Fig. 6C). More ammonium was accumulated in the *gln1;2* roots grown with ammonium than Col (Fig. 6D). Furthermore, *gln1;2* showed impaired lateral root growth under ammonium (Supplementary Fig. S2C). These observations indicate that a significant portion of ammonium absorbed by roots is normally assimilated in the root. Following ammonium incorporation into glutamine, the subsequent conversion of glutamine to glutamate can be catalyzed by Fd-GOGAT (*GLU1*, *GLU2*) or NADH-GOGAT (*GLT*). Q-PCR analysis showed that, of these three genes, *GLU2* and *GLT* were predominantly expressed in roots (Supplementary Fig. S2D). If *RFNR2* contributes to glutamate biosynthesis under ammonium growth conditions, the contents of glutamine and glutamate in the roots would be expected to change on *RFNR2* deficiency. The results, however, show that there is no significant difference in either amino acid between Col and *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 6E). Moreover, no compensatory induction of *RFNR1*, *FD3*, *G6PD3*, *At5g41670*, *GLT* or *GLU2* expression occurred in *rfnr2-2* grown with ammonium (Supplementary Fig. S2E). These results suggest that *RFNR2* does not make a significant contribution to glutamate biosynthesis under ammonium growth conditions. Taken together, we conclude that *RFNR2* has a significant role in N reduction/assimilation of nitrite, rather than nitrate or ammonium.

Discussion

Plants use nitrate and ammonium as major N sources (Kiba and Krapp 2016). Currently, these are recognized as not only substrates for protein synthesis but also signals that alter gene expression and root morphology (Remans et al. 2006, Lima et al. 2010, Patterson et al. 2010). To date, the components for their transport and signaling have been comprehensively identified and characterized (Krapp et al. 2015). On the other hand, far less information about nitrite is available, although measurable amounts of nitrite are often present in the soil and can accumulate to high levels depending on pH (Shen et al. 2003, Kotur et al. 2013). Nitrite is actively taken up by specific transport systems and used for N assimilation (Kotur et al. 2013). Plants can sense exogenous nitrite at micromolar concentrations, and respond by altering their transcriptome (Wang et al. 2007). There is no doubt that nitrite is a third inorganic N source worthy of attention. NiR is the sole enzyme for nitrite reduction and is completely dependent on the reduced form of ferredoxin as an electron donor. In *NIR* antisense tobacco plants, growth is suppressed with accompanying accumulation of nitrite to extremely high concentrations (Morot-Gaudry-Talarmain et al. 2002). Our results suggest that in *rfnr2* mutants NiR can not fulfill its physiological role in roots due to a limitation in electron supply.

The data presented here indicate that in *Arabidopsis*, both NO_3 and NH_4 , but not NO_2 , are primarily transported to the shoot for assimilation. If such a mechanism were also applied to NO_2 , the plant would be subject to severe toxic effects. To avoid this, NO_2 assimilation depends on an effective electron supply to NiR by RFNR in the root, in

order to reduce NO₂ to NH₄ before transport to the leaf.

Here we provide strong evidence supporting the hypothesis that *in vivo* the flux rate of nitrite reduction is decreased in the *RFNR2* mutants as the system for supplying reduced Fd to NiR is disrupted. However, testing this hypothesis directly is experimentally problematic using the conventional method of assaying NiR activity. In this method, maximum activity of NiR is measured with an excess amounts of electron donors. Thus, it would not reflect *in vivo* flux rate of nitrite reduction, and any defect in NiR reduction due to impaired electron supply would not be detected. It is therefore a research priority to develop a new method for quantitative evaluation of the flux rate in the future.

Primary root growth of two *RFNR2* mutants decreased relative to Col under nitrite growth conditions, whereas only *rfnr2-2* showed the stunted growth of lateral roots under nitrite. This phenotypic discrepancy may reflect the extent of genetic defects (i.e. knockout in *rfnr2-2*, knockdown in *rfnr2-1*). We concluded that *RFNR2* deficiency impacts on primary root growth when nitrite is supplied as the N source.

Given that nitrite is toxic, its conversion to organic N results in detoxification. Since nitrite reduction occurs only in plastids, this toxic nitrite should be promptly transported into plastids before its reduction. In *A. thaliana*, specific transporters for nitrite uptake into plastids have been identified as *NITR2;1* and *NITR2;2* (Maeda et al. 2014). The promoter-directed GUS signal of *NITR2;2* was detected exclusively in roots. An *in silico* survey for the genes co-expressed with *RFNR2* found that *NITR2;2* was ranked 13th (Obayashi et al. 2014). *NITR2;2* may therefore be important for the

immediate reduction of nitrite taken up from the soil.

Our expression analysis confirmed that *AtRFNR1* was expressed at a lower level than *AtRFNR2*, and *AtRFNR1* is a minor form (Fig. 1C, 2A). It is possible that *RFNR1* has some redundant function with *RFNR2* in roots, because *RFNR1* showed a similar expression pattern to *RFNR2* in response to different N sources (Fig. 5B) and *RFNR1* was induced in *rfnr2-2* in a compensatory manner (Fig. 5C). Interestingly, the suppression of primary root elongation in *rfnr2-2* was mitigated at its later growth stages under nitrite growth conditions (Fig. 3E), indicating that *RFNR1* might partly alleviate nitrite accumulation and its toxicity in *rfnr2-2*, although the compensation was not sufficient to completely restore the root growth (Fig. 3). On the other hand, root growth of a *RFNR1* knockout mutant was not impaired under nitrite growth conditions (Supplementary Fig. S3A-C). The contribution of *RFNR1* to reduction of nitrite absorbed by roots is therefore probably limited.

The genes coexpressed with *RFNR2* in Figure 5 have all been identified as both nitrate- and nitrite-inducible genes (Supplemental Data in Wang et al. 2007). In this case, we observed that nitrite induced much stronger effects on gene expression than nitrate (Fig. 5A, B). A uniform response of the genes indicates strict control of expression by a single mechanism that originates with nitrite perception. Both expression of *NIR* and *NITR2;2* are under the control of the NIN-like protein (NLP) family of transcription factors, responding to nitrate *per se* (Konishi and Yanagisawa 2013, Maeda et al. 2014). A mutation of the nitrate sensor *CHL1/NRT1.1/NPF6.3* suppressed nitrate induction of genes related to nitrite detoxification examined in Figure 5 (Supplemental Data in Wang

et al. 2009). Considering that over one-half of nitrite-responding genes overlap with nitrate-responding genes (Wang et al. 2007) and that the molecular structure of nitrate and nitrite is similar, it is possible that the same components could be involved in both nitrate signaling and the nitrite induction of these genes.

In *A. thaliana*, chloroplasts purified from *LFNR1* knockout plants had enhanced activities of nitrite reduction compared with those from Col (Hanke et al. 2008). This implies a competition for reduced Fd between LFNR and NIR. Bloom et al. (2010) have demonstrated that, in leaves, the conversion from nitrate to ammonium is suppressed under elevated CO₂ with nitrate as an N source. This suggests that increased demand on NADPH for CO₂ assimilation in the Calvin Benson cycle could deplete the reduced leaf Fd available for NIR. Thus, some leaf localized Fd-dependent enzymatic reactions may be limited by electron supply under high CO₂, which in turn, could necessitate a greater contribution of root localized Fd-dependent reactions to bioassimilatory and biosynthetic processes. Enhanced CO₂ assimilation under high CO₂ has been shown to increase carbon partitioning to roots (Duan et al. 2014), providing more sugar for NADPH production in the oxPPP. Reduction of root Fd by RFNR is a future research target worthy of attention in the context of increasing CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere.

Materials and Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. accession Col and mutants *rfnr1*-KO (SALK_085009), *rfnr2*-KO (SALK_133654), *rfnr2*-KD (SAIL_527_G10), *gln1;2*-KO (SALK_102291, Lothier et al. 2011) and *nial1-lnia2-5* (*nr*), a *NITRATE REDUCTASE* double mutant (Wilkinson and Crawford 1993) were used in our experiments. The seeds were purchased from the European Arabidopsis Stock Centre. After surface sterilization, 10 seeds were sown on plastic Petri dishes (length 140 mm, width 100 mm, depth 20 mm; Eiken Kagaku, Tokyo, Japan) containing 50 ml of half-strength Murashige and Skoog-macro- and micro-nutrient salts (except for N) with 0.05% (w/v) MES-H₂O, 1% (w/v) sucrose (Murashige and Skoog 1962). For the media containing 0.2 mM of nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A), 0.2 mM KNO₃ and 1.8 mM KCl, 0.2 mM KNO₂ and 1.8 mM KCl or 0.2

mM NH₄Cl and 2 mM KCl were added, respectively. The media were solidified with 0.5% (w/v) geranium, and pH of the media was adjusted to 6.15 with KOH. After sowing, the plates were kept at 4°C in the dark for three days. Plants were grown in a vertical position on plastic dishes under a photosynthetic photon flux density of 100–120 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (16 h light/8 h dark cycle) at 23°C. Ten seeds per plate were sown in all experiments. For comparisons between Col and mutants, five seeds of each line were placed on the same plate, if not specified. Further details are given in the Results and figure legends.

Root growth analysis

For analysis of root growth, 7-day-old plants were harvested and scanned at 300 dpi resolution for measurement of root length according to Hachiya et al. (2014). The root architecture was traced using Photoshop Elements 11 (Adobe Systems), and the lengths of primary and lateral roots were measured from traced images using ImageJ software (ver.1.47).

Preparation for segmented plates

A localized addition of nitrate or nitrite to plants was accomplished using segmented plates where two patches were separated by an air gap (Remans et al. 2006). For preparation of the segmented plate, basic nutrient media (as described above) containing no N sources were solidified. The narrow gel split was eliminated with sterile razors and forceps to create an air gap. Subsequently, concentrated potassium nitrate or

potassium nitrite were placed and spread on each patch of the media. To allow homogenous diffusion of the N sources, the plates were prepared more than 48 h before the experiments. Three 4-day-old Col and *rfr2-2* plants of each line grown on 0.2 mM of ammonium medium were transferred onto the segmented plates. It should be noted that shoots and roots were in contact with only the upper and lower patches, respectively. The plants were grown for a further three days, and elongation of the primary root was measured as described above.

Extraction of total RNA, reverse transcription and real-time PCR

For purification of total RNA, shoots or roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per plate were regarded as one biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) using 5 mm zirconia beads. Total RNA was extracted using RNeasy plant mini kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's instructions with on-column DNase digestion. Reverse transcription was performed with a ReverTra Ace qPCR RT Master Mix (Toyobo Life Science, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The synthesized cDNA was diluted 10-fold with distilled water for real-time PCR.

Transcript levels were measured using a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). cDNA (2 µl) was amplified in the presence of 10 µl of KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR Kit (Nippon Genetics Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan), 0.5 µl of specific primers (0.2 µM final concentration) and 7.5 µl sterilized water.

Transcript levels were quantified using absolute or relative standard curve with *ACTIN3* as the internal standard. Plasmid DNA containing the corresponding cDNAs or total cDNAs were used as templates to generate standard curves. Primer sequences used for the experiments are shown in Supplemental Table S2. Primers were designed with the NCBI/Primer-BLAST program.

Western analysis of RFNR proteins

Roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at –80°C before use. All samples per two plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. Total proteins were extracted with 10 volumes of sample buffer (NuPAGE LDS Sample buffer and NuPAGE Reducing Agent, ThermoFisher Scientific) followed by incubation at 95°C for 5 min. The extracts were centrifuged at 20,400 g at room temperature for 10 min. 10 µl of the supernatant was subjected to SDS-PAGE in a 15% (w/v) gel and transferred to a PVDF membrane (Immobilon-P, Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) at 2 mA cm⁻² for 1.5 h in transfer buffer (NuPAGE Transfer Buffer, ThermoFisher Scientific). The membrane was incubated in blocking buffer containing ECL Prime Blocking Agent (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK), 0.02% Tween-20, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 140 mM NaCl for 1 h, and reacted with a 1/50000 dilution of the polyclonal antibody raised against maize RFNR overnight (Onda et al. 2000). After rinsing, the antigen-antibody complex was detected by 1/50000 dilution of horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated with goat antibody against rabbit IgG (NA935, GE Healthcare) and visualized by chemiluminescent

detection (ECL Prime, GE Healthcare) using ImageQuant LAS 4010 (GE Healthcare).

Determination of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, glutamine, glutamate and protein

Nitrate was extracted and determined according to Hachiya et al. (2012) with slight modifications. Shoots or roots were harvested and dried at 80°C before use. All samples per plate were regarded as one biological replicate. Nitrate was extracted with 10 volumes of water at 100°C for 10 min. 10 µl of supernatant was mixed with 40 µl of reaction reagent (50 mg salicylic acid per one ml concentrated sulfuric acid), and the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 20 min. For the mock treatment, 40 µl of concentrated sulfuric acid only was added to 10 µl of supernatant. After an addition of 1 ml of NaOH to the mixture, absorbance at 410 nm was scanned. Nitrate content of the supernatant was calculated based on standard curve with dilution series of potassium nitrate.

For nitrite determination, roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per five plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. Nitrite was extracted with 5 volumes of extraction buffer (50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH7.6, 1 mM EDTA, 7 mM cysteine). The extracts were centrifuged at 20,400 g at 4°C for 10 min. The supernatant was mixed with equal volumes of 1% (w/v) sulfanilamide solution in 1N HCl and 0.02% (w/v) N-1-Naphthylethylenediamine dihydrochloride solution in H₂O. For detection of the nonspecific background, 1% (w/v) sulfanilamide solution in 1N HCl was replaced by 1N HCl. The mixture was incubated at

room temperature for 15 min followed by scanning absorbance at 540 nm. Nitrite content of the supernatant was calculated based on standard curve with dilution series of potassium nitrite by subtracting the background values from the total values.

For ammonium determination, roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per plate were regarded as one biological replicate. Ammonium was extracted and determined according to Bräutigam et al. (2007) with slight modifications. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. 1 ml of 0.1 N HCl and 500 µl of chloroform were added to the frozen powder. The mixture was rotated for 15 min at 4°C followed by centrifugation at 12,000 g at 8°C for 10 min. The aqueous phase was further purified by acid-washed activated charcoal (No. 035-18081; Wako, Osaka, Japan). Ammonium content of the supernatant was spectroscopically determined using an ammonia test kit (No. 277-14401, Wako) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

For determination of glutamine and glutamate, roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per five plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Glutamine and glutamate were extracted and determined according to Kamada-Nobusada et al. (2013). Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. The powder was mixed with 10 volumes of 10 mM HCl containing 0.2 mM methionine sulfone as an internal control. The homogenate was centrifuged at 20400 g at 4°C for 5 min, and the supernatant was filtered through Ultrafree-MC filters (No. UFC30GV00, Merck Millipore). Amino acid contents in the resulting filtrate were determined using Pico-Tag

(Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA) with an HPLC System (Waters Alliance 2695 HPLC system/2475) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Total protein was extracted as described above. 10 μ l of the extracts were suspended into 500 μ l of H₂O, after which 100 μ l of 0.15 % (w/v) sodium deoxycholate aqueous solution was added, and the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 10 min. Subsequent addition of 100 μ l of 72% (v/v) trichloroacetic acid was followed by incubation at room temperature for 15 min. The mixture was centrifuged at 20,400 g at room temperature for 10 min, and the precipitates were dried at room temperature and used for protein determination by a BCA method (Takara BCA Protein Assay Kit No. T9300A, Takara Bio Inc., Otsu, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Determination of activities of nitrate reductase and glutamine synthetase

NR activity was determined according to Konishi and Yanagisawa (2011). Shoots or roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per two plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. The powder was mixed with 5 volumes of extraction buffer (50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH7.6, 1 mM EDTA, 7 mM cysteine). The extracts were centrifuged at 20,400 g at 4°C for 10 min. 25 μ l of the supernatant was added to 75 μ l of assay buffer (50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH7.6, 100 μ M NADH, 2 mM EDTA, 5 mM KNO₃). After incubation at 30°C for 15 min, nitrite produced was determined as mentioned above.

GS activity was determined as the ADP-dependent conversion rate of L-

glutamine to γ -glutamylhydroxamate according to Taira et al. (2004) and Li et al. (2012) with slight modifications. Shoots or roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per two plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. The powder was mixed with 10 volumes of extraction buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH7.5, 1% (w/v) PVP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MnCl₂, 0.5% (v/v) β -mercaptoethanol, 0.1 mM APMSF). The extracts were centrifuged at 12,000 *g* at 4°C for 10 min. 45 μl of assay buffer (40 mM imidazole-HCl, pH 7.0, 20 mM sodium arsenate, 0.5 mM ADP, 3 mM MnCl₂, 60 mM NH₂OH, 30 mM L-glutamine) was added to 5 μl of the supernatant, and the mixture was incubated at 30°C for 15 min. Reactions were stopped by adding 30 μl of FeCl₃-TCA-HCl solution (2.6% FeCl₃·6H₂O, 4% trichloroacetic acid in 1N HCl). The products were measured by absorbance at 540 nm.

Construction of ProRFNR2:GUS fusions

The putative promoter region (-879 to $+24$ bp from the first ATG codon) was amplified from *Arabidopsis* genomic DNA using PrimeSTAR GXL DNA Polymerase (Takara Bio Inc.) and specific primers (see Supplemental Table 2). PCR products were cloned into pENTR using pENTR/D-TOPO Cloning Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions, sequenced, and subcloned into pBA002a-GW-GUS (Kiba et al. 2007) by LR reaction. The binary vector was transformed into *Agrobacterium* strain EHA101. Transformants were selected on LB medium containing 100 mg L⁻¹ spectinomycin and positive clones were recovered. *Arabidopsis* plants

accession Col was transformed by the floral dip method (Clough and Bent 1998). Transgenic seedlings were isolated on Murashige and Skoog medium containing 1% sucrose and 5 mg L⁻¹ bialaphos sodium salt. Segregation ratios were analyzed to select plants with one copy of T-DNA and to isolate homozygous plants. T3-homozygous plants were used for experiments.

GUS Staining

Histochemical GUS staining was performed according to Jefferson (1987) with slight modifications. Plants were incubated in 90% (v/v) acetone solution on ice for 15 min, and submerged into assay buffer (100 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.4, 10 mM EDTA, 5 mM ferro/ferricyanide, 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100, 0.5 mg mL⁻¹ X-Gluc), followed by vacuum infiltration at room temperature for 15 min. Plants were incubated in the dark at 37 °C for 4.5 h. The stained plants were washed with 70 % (v/v) ethanol and bleached with 6:1 (v/v) ethanol : acetic acid. The samples were mounted with chloral hydrate solution (8:1:2 (w/v/v) chloral hydrate : glycerol : H₂O) and observed using a stereoscopic microscope (Olympus SZX12, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) and an optical microscope (Olympus BX53).

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were conducted using the R software package (ver. 2.15.3). Details of analyses are given in the Results and in table and figure legends.

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Legends to figures

Fig. 1 RFNR2 is the major RFNR isoform in roots grown on nitrite media. (A) Schematic representation of *rfnr1* and *rfnr2* T-DNA insertion alleles. Boxes represent exons; horizontal thin bars, untranslated region; horizontal thick bars, introns; ATG, initiation codon; TGA, termination codon. (B) RT-PCR analysis using specific primers of *RFNR1* and *RFNR2* transcript levels in roots of Col, *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2* mutants grown under 0.2 mM nitrite for seven days (Supplementary Table S2). *ACT2* was used as the loading control. (C) Immunodetection of RFNR1 and RFNR2 isoproteins with specific antisera raised against maize RFNR following SDS-PAGE and western blotting in roots of Col, *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2* mutants grown under 0.2 mM nitrite for seven days. The position of the nearest molecular weight marker is given on the left.

Fig. 2 *RFNR2* is induced by nitrite. (A) Absolute transcript levels of *RFNR1* and *RFNR2* in shoots and roots of Col grown under 0.2mM of nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A) for seven days (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (B) Relative transcript levels of *RFNR2* in 7 d Col roots before (0 min) or after (30 min) the transfer to 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (C) The tissue specific pattern of GUS activity in 5-day-old *pRFNR2::GUS* seedlings grown under nitrate or nitrite. The arrowheads indicate root tips. The scale bar denotes 10 mm. (D) GUS activity in the central portion of the primary

root. The scale bar denotes 100 μm . (E) GUS activity in the primary root tips. The scale bar denotes 50 μm . (F) Relative transcript levels of *RFNR2* and *GUS* in the roots of 5 d *pRFNR2::GUS* seedlings grown under nitrate or nitrite (Mean \pm SD, $n = 4$). Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a one-way ANOVA was significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant differences. Student's *t*-test was conducted ($*P < 0.05$).

Fig. 3 *RFNR2* is essential for normal root growth on nitrite media. (A) Representative photographs in 9-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on media containing 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium. (B) Primary root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A) (Mean \pm SD, $n = 10$). White and black bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. (C) Lateral root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium (Mean \pm SD, $n = 10$). (D) Concentration dependency of primary root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0, 0.04, 0.2 and 1 mM nitrate or nitrite (Mean \pm SD, $n = 12-15$). (E) Time-courses of primary root elongation per day on 0.2 mM of each N source (Mean \pm SD, $n = 15$). (F) Primary root elongation 3 days after the transfer from 0.2 mM nitrate or nitrite to 0.2 mM of nitrate or nitrite in 4-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2*. "NA to NA" means the transfer from 0.2 mM nitrate to 0.2 mM nitrate (Mean \pm SD, $n = 5$). Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a one-way ANOVA was significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant differences. NS means not significant.

969

970 **Fig. 4** Impaired root growth of *RFNR2* mutant is due to nitrite accumulation. (A) Nitrite
971 contents in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate (NA) or nitrite
972 (NI) (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). White and black bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. (B)
973 Primary root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrite in the presence
974 or absence of the NO scavenger, cPTIO (Mean \pm SD, n = 10). (C) Relative transcript
975 levels of *AOX1a* in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate or nitrite
976 (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (D) NR activities (NRA) in shoots and roots of 7-day-old Col grown
977 on 0.2 mM nitrite (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (E) Protein contents in plants of 7-day-old Col and
978 *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (F) Primary
979 root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* under 0.2 mM of nitrate, 0.2 mM nitrate plus 0.2
980 mM nitrite (i.e. 0.4 mM N in total), 0.2 mM nitrite, 0.2 mM nitrite plus 0.2 mM of
981 ammonium (i.e. 0.4 mM N in total) or 0.2 mM ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 10). (G)
982 Representative photographs in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate, 0.2
983 mM nitrate plus 0.2 mM nitrite or 0.2 mM nitrite. Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison
984 test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a one-way ANOVA was
985 significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant differences. ND and NS mean
986 not detected and not significant, respectively.

987

988 **Fig. 5** A specific set of genes related to nitrite reduction uniformly responds to nitrite. (A)
989 Relative transcript levels of *NIR*, *FD3*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190*, *At5g41670* and
990 *At4g34270* (a reference gene, Hong et al. 2010) in shoots and roots of 7-day-old Col

grown on 0.2mM nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A) for seven days (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (B) Relative transcript levels of *NIR*, *FD3*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190*, *At5g41670*, *RFNR1* and *At4g34270* in 7-day-old Col roots before (0 min) or after (30 min) transfer to 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (C) Relative transcript levels of *NIR*, *FD3*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190*, *At5g41670*, *RFNR1* and *At4g34270* in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2mM nitrite (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). White and black bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a one-way ANOVA was significant at $P < 0.05$. Student's *t*-test was conducted ($*P < 0.05$). NS means not significant.

Fig. 6 RFNR2 is not essential for N reduction/assimilation when nitrate or ammonium are the sole N sources. (A) NR activities (NRA) in shoots and roots of 7-day-old Col on 0.2 mM nitrate (Mean \pm SD, n = 4). (B) Nitrate contents in shoots and roots of 7-day-old Col and NR double mutant (*nr*) on 0.2 mM nitrate (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). White and dotted bars denote Col and *nr*, respectively. (C) GS activities in roots of 7-day-old Col and *gln1;2* grown on 0.2mM ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 4). White and diagonal bars denote Col and *gln1;2*, respectively. (D) Ammonium contents in the roots of 7-day-old Col and *gln1;2* grown on 0.2 mM ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (E) Contents of glutamine and glutamate in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). White and black bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a

1013 one-way ANOVA was significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant
1014 differences. Student's t -test was conducted ($*P < 0.05$). ND and NS mean not detected
1015 and not significant, respectively.

Figure 1

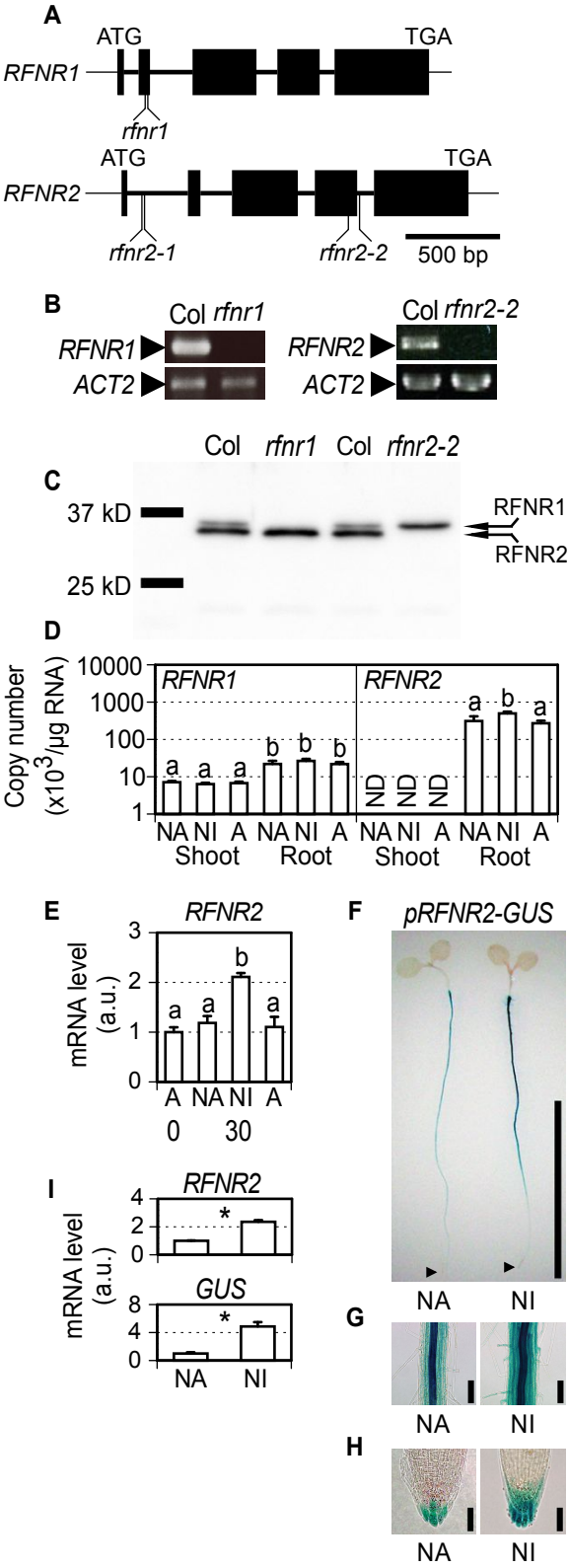


Figure 2

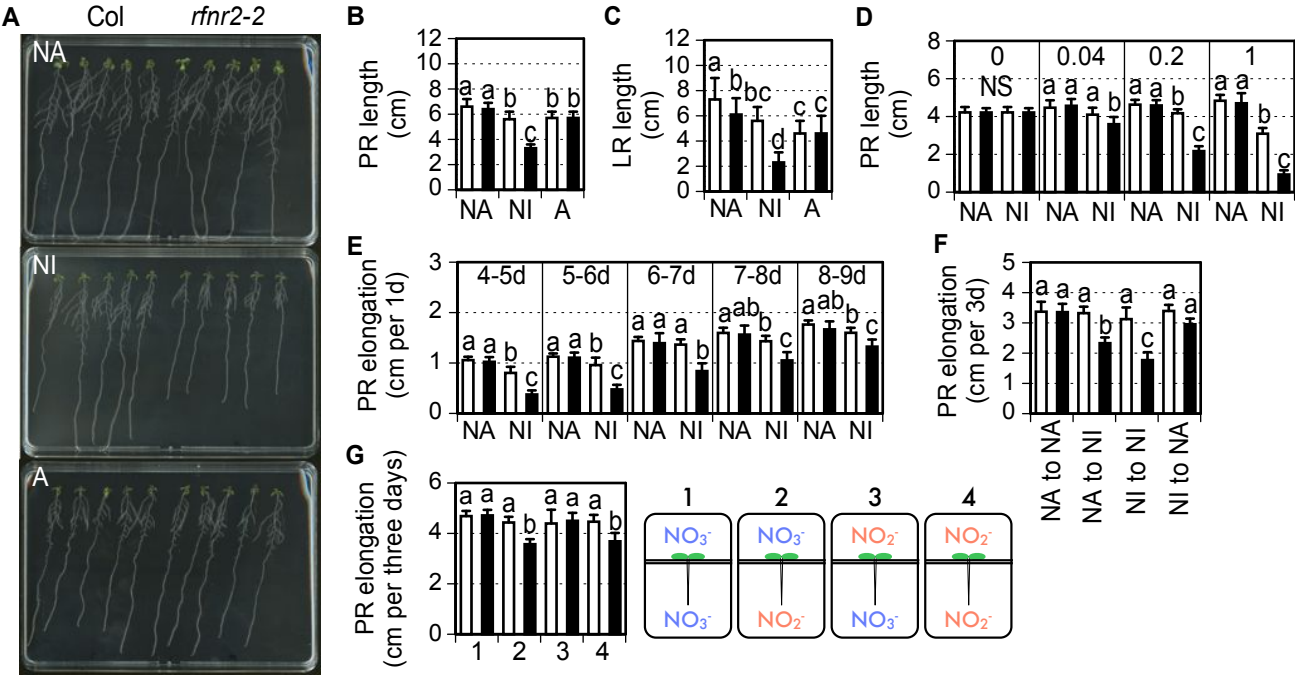


Figure 3

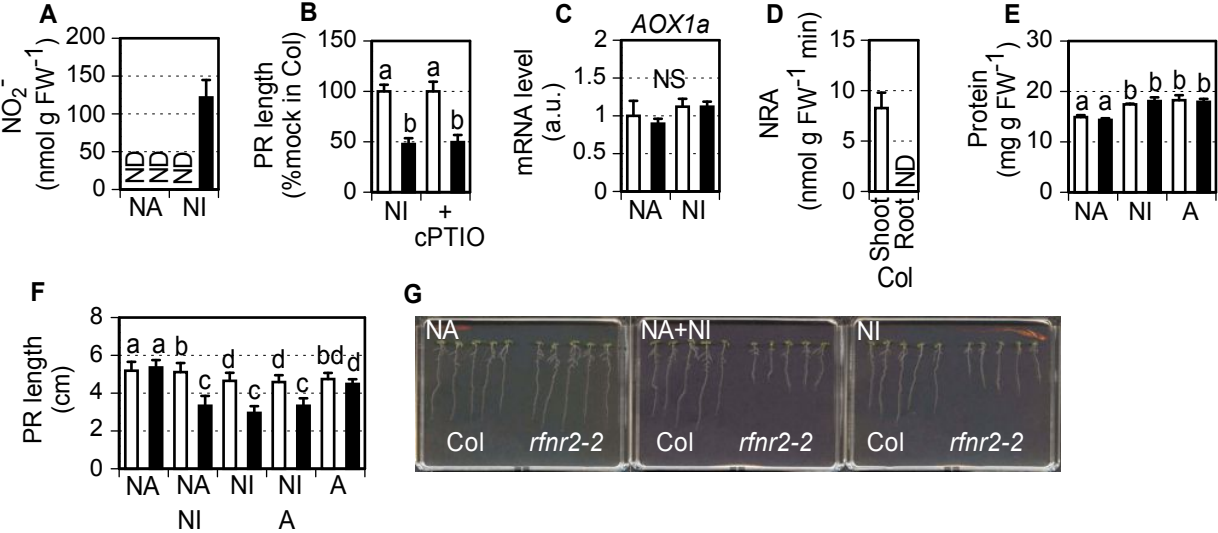


Figure 4

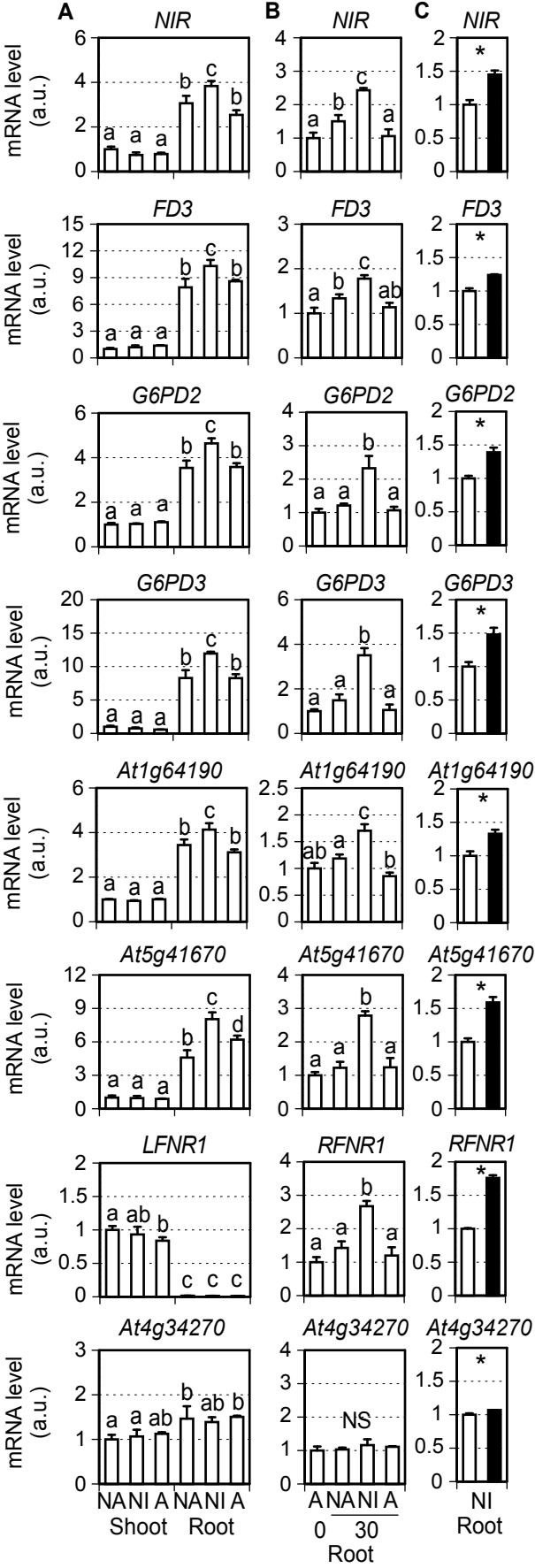


Figure 5

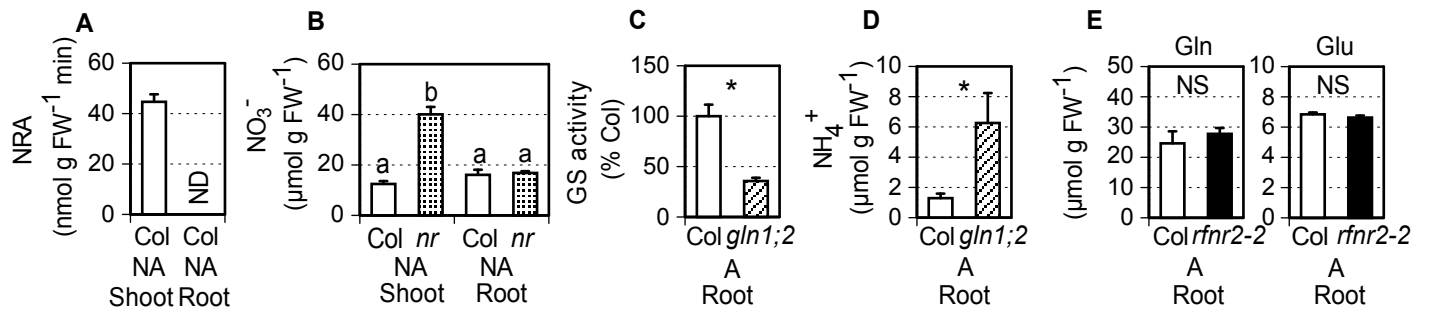


Table S1. A list coexpressed with RFNR2 by ATTED II (Obayashi et al. 2007)

AGI No.	AGI No.	Gene name
1st	At1g24280	<i>G6PD3</i>
2nd	At5g41670	<i>dehydrogenase</i>
3rd	At5g13420	<i>TRA2</i>
4th	At4g05390	<i>RFNR1</i>
5th	At1g78050	<i>PGM</i>
6th	At5g13110	<i>G6PD2</i>
7th	At2g15620	<i>NIR</i>
8th	At1g63940	<i>MDAR6</i>
9th	At2g27510	<i>FD3</i>
10th	At1g64190	<i>dehydrogenase</i>

Table S2. Primer sequences

AGI No.	Gene name	Purpose	Primer 1 (5'→3')	Primer 2 (5'→3')	Reference
AT4G05390	<i>RFNR1</i>	gPCR for SALK_085009	TAACAACGAATTTGGCTTTGG	GGGATTCTCACCTACGAGTC	This paper
AT1G30510	<i>RFNR2</i>	gPCR for SAIL_527_G10	CCAACTACTCGCTCCACAGAG	TCGGTTCAGGAAAATGATTTG	This paper
AT1G30510	<i>RFNR2</i>	gPCR for SALK_133654	TCAATAGACTTCAACGTGCCAC	CTCTGTGGAGCGAGTAGTTGG	This paper
AT3G18780	<i>ACT2</i>	RT-PCR/gPCR	TGTCCTCCTCACTTTCATCAGC	CATCAATTCGATCACTCAGAGC	This paper
AT4G05390	<i>RFNR1</i>	RT-PCR/gPCR	CACCATGGCTCTCTCAACTACTCCTTC	TCAATACACTTCAACATGCCACTGC	This paper
AT1G30510	<i>RFNR2</i>	RT-PCR/gPCR	CACCATGTCTCACTCTGCTGTTTC	TCAATAGACTTCAACGTGCCACTG	This paper
AT3G53750	<i>ACT3</i>	Q-PCR	GGCTAACCGTGAGAAGATGA	CGACCTGCAAGATCAAGACG	Watanabe et al. (2014)
AT3G22370	<i>AOX1a</i>	Q-PCR	CCGATTTGTTCTTCCAGAGG	GCGCTCTCTCGTACCATTTC	Escobar et al. (2004)
AT1G64190	<i>At1g64190</i>	Q-PCR	GCACTATCCCGAATCGGTCTC	AGGCGAGGTTTTGGCCCAT	This paper
AT4G34270	<i>At4g34270</i>	Q-PCR	CATTTCACTCTCTATCTGCGAAAGGGTATCC	CACCACAATAAGTCAGTGGAGTAACTCCTTAC	Hong et al. (2010)
AT5G41670	<i>At5g41670</i>	Q-PCR	GAGTCAGTAAAGCATGGACACAGT	AGCTGAAACAATTTGTTTTCTGTGTTCT	Gonzali et al. (2006)
AT2G27510	<i>FD3</i>	Q-PCR	GCAGCTGAAGAGGCAGGAGT	AAGTAGAACACGCACCGGCT	This paper
AT5G13110	<i>G6PD2</i>	Q-PCR	CCCTGGTTTAGGAATGAGAT	TAAGAGAAACCCCTTTGGTT	Wakao and Benning (2005)
AT1G24280	<i>G6PD3</i>	Q-PCR	TGGTTTATGGAACTTTCCTTCGC	AGGGTGGCAAGAATAGGGTA	Ruffel et al. (2011)
AT1G66200	<i>GLN1;2</i>	Q-PCR	AGCCAAGCTTCTCGATCGCC	TGGAATGGAGCTGGTGCTCA	This paper
AT5G35630	<i>GLN2</i>	Q-PCR	TTGACCAGTTCTCATGGGGC	TTAGATGCTGGACGGCGATC	This paper
AT5G53460	<i>GLT</i>	Q-PCR	TTGGACCTGAGCCAACACTTG	CATCATCCGTTTTGGTGAGGA	Potel et al. (2009)
AT5G04140	<i>GLU1</i>	Q-PCR	ATCATTCAAGAGCAGGTTGT	GACAGTTGAAAGCAGTTATT	Potel et al. (2009)
AT2G41220	<i>GLU2</i>	Q-PCR	TACACATTTGATCGTGTTT	AATCGAAAACCTTTCTTAA	Potel et al. (2009)
-	<i>GUS</i>	Q-PCR	GAAAGCGCGTTACAAGAAAG	GACGTTGCCCGCATAATTAC	Tanabe et al. (2015)
AT5G66190	<i>LFNR1</i>	Q-PCR	CTGCAGTCTCTTACCTTCTCC	GACAACAATCCCTTCTCCTGTTTC	Lintala et al. (2009)
AT2G15620	<i>NIR</i>	Q-PCR	CATGGGATGCTTAACACGAG	AATGGAACCAACTCCGTGAC	Konishi and Yanagisawa (2011)
AT4G05390	<i>RFNR1</i>	Q-PCR	CAATGCCAAACCCGGCGATA	CCTTCCAGATGGACCGGTGA	This paper
AT1G30510	<i>RFNR2</i>	Q-PCR	CGGGCTTTGAATCACATAGG	TGTGATTCTCCAGGTGAGA	This paper

Figure S1

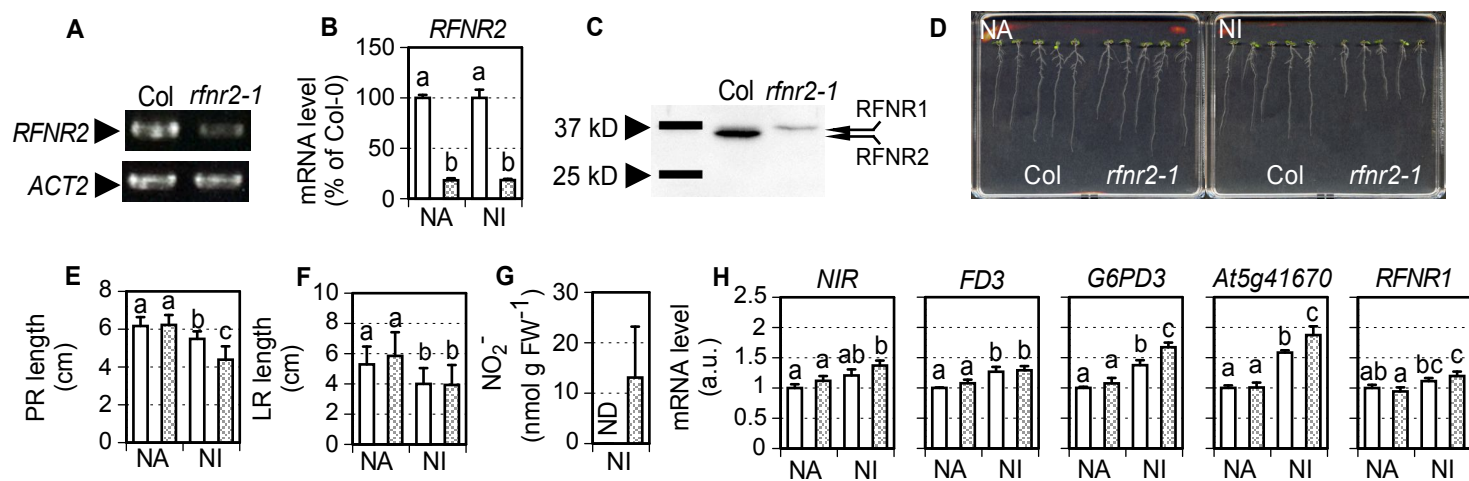


Figure S2

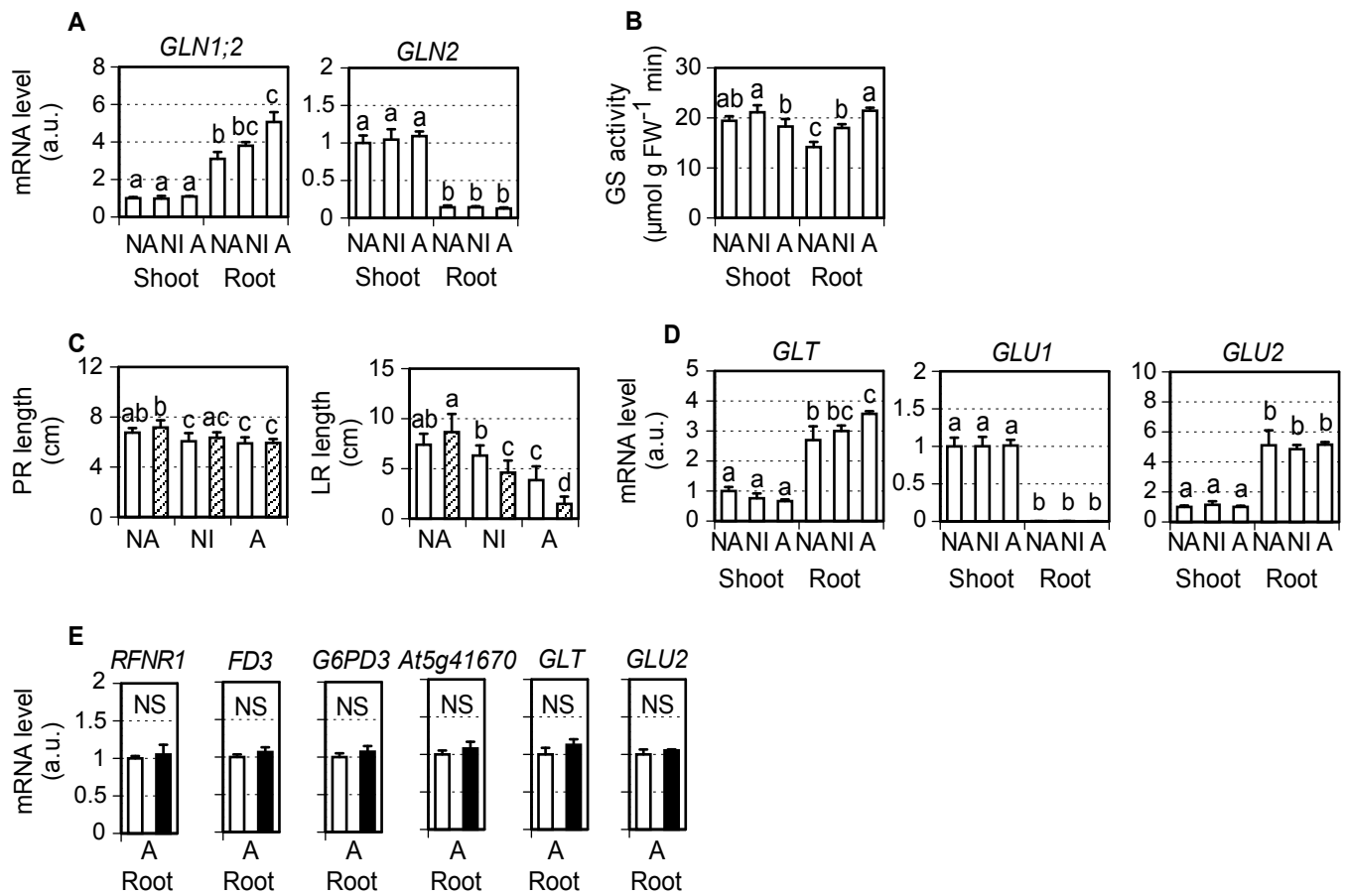


Figure S3

